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The Effects of Quality of Life Factors on Turnover and Performance in the Private Sector: A Literature Revue

Dale N. Glaser

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**The Effects of Quality of Life Factors On
Turnover and Performance in the Private Sector:
Literature Review**

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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) A literature review was conducted assessing the effects of Quality of Life (QOL) and related factors that affect turnover and performance in the private sector. Support was found for the spillover model (attitudes from one sector of life, such as work, carry over into another sphere, such as home). However, determining the causal direction of the work-nonwork relationship is still speculative. Some evidence has been found for the effects of family responsibilities on work (e.g., tardiness). Possible variables that influence turnover include pay/salary, health, and shiftwork. The QOL/performance relationship is suggestive at best given the lack of research.				
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Foreword

This technical report is a review of the literature pertaining to Quality of Life (QOL) factors that may impact certain private sector outcomes such as turnover and performance. This report supplements a previous report by Dale N. Glaser and Joyce Shettel Dutcher which isolated QOL variables that influenced military outcome variables such as retention, attrition, performance, readiness, and recruitment. The information obtained from this report will contribute to the development of a QOL predictive model.

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Summary

Problem, Background, and Objective

Approximately \$2 billion is spent annually by the Navy on Quality of Life (QOL) programs to meet service members' needs. Proper use of this funding is a significant concern to the Navy. Besides the financial impact of the programs, the effects of QOL related factors (e.g., pay, housing) on such military outcomes as retention, attrition, readiness, and performance also require scrutiny. A prior report summarized the literature and provided recommendations in regard to the effects of QOL related factors on military outcomes (e.g., retention) (NPRDC-TR-94-3). Thus, the objective of this report was to examine the literature that pertained to the effect of QOL factors on similar outcomes (e.g., turnover, performance) in the private/civilian sector.

This effort is part of an ongoing Navy 6.3 QOL project (Navy Quality of Life Predictive Model) which started in FY91. The information obtained from this review of the literature regarding the private sector will supplement the previously mentioned review of the military sector, which was used in the development of a survey assessing QOL factors and their impact on military outcomes. Ultimately, the information will contribute to the development of a model to predict military outcomes based on military members' QOL needs, their QOL satisfaction, and individual, social, and economic variables.

Approach

An extensive literature review was the primary approach used to assess QOL factors that influence organizational outcomes. Turnover was used in lieu of the military terms retention/attrition given that it was the term most appropriate for the private sector. There was not an appropriate corollary in the organizational literature for readiness, whereas job performance maintained the same descriptor.

Conclusion

1. The spillover model has garnered the most support in terms of the work-nonwork relationship, even though causal direction is still inconclusive. Generally, the research has explored the effects of work on nonwork variables, even though the opposite relationship may be tenable.
2. Possible factors that may be pertinent to general well-being (and work outcomes) include savings and investments, housing, and standard of living.
3. The work-family conflict has generally been examined in the direction of the effects of work on family, even though research suggests the opposite relationship may hold. A crucial factor to consider in the work-family relationship is the career/life cycle of the employee (e.g., married vs. not married, early vs. late stage of career, and children vs. no children).
4. Intention to leave and job satisfaction have been extensively documented as potential factors in the turnover decision. Even though there is very little in the literature that specifically defines the QOL effect on turnover, there is some evidence that income/pay may be a critical influence on the withdrawal decision. The prevailing labor market may also impact the decision to leave, even though the results are mixed. Vacations, health, and scheduling may also impact the turnover decision.

5. The effects of QOL on performance are speculative at best given the paucity of research addressing this relationship. There has been some evidence of family factors impeding job performance, although the effect was marginal.

Recommendations

1. Further clarify the effects of QOL on outcome variables (i.e., turnover, performance) given the lack of concrete data identifying the QOL → work relationship. A survey assessing the effects of QOL on military outcomes has been constructed and will be administered to help accomplish this objective.

2. Mediating variables such as job involvement, organizational commitment, and self-esteem may play critical roles influencing the effects of QOL on work outcomes, and should be investigated, as well as any pertinent moderating variables.

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Introduction

Problem

The U.S. military in recent years has emphasized improving service members' Quality of Life (QOL) in efforts to attract, train, motivate, and retain the best individuals for all-volunteer armed forces. Each of the military components devote significant resources to programs and facilities intended to enhance QOL for service members and their families; it is estimated that over \$2 billion annually is spent by the Navy on QOL programs. The significant investment of resources in QOL programs underscores the need to understand the impact of Navy QOL on these important military outcomes.

Objective

The objectives of this project are to (1) extensively review the literature in regards to QOL factors that may impact turnover and job performance in the civilian/private sector and (2) assess research from the private sector that appears relevant to the analogous military outcomes of attrition/retention and performance and provide appropriate recommendations.

Background

The research summarized in this report is part of an ongoing Navy QOL project which started in FY91, sponsored by the Chief of Naval Personnel (PERS-6). The object of the Navy Quality of Life Predictive Model project is to develop a model to predict military outcomes (e.g., readiness, performance, retention) based on military members' QOL needs and their satisfaction, individual characteristics of members, and social and economic variables associated with individuals and the locations at which they are stationed. The model will be designed for use by Navy planners for the purpose of developing and adapting QOL programs to meet the needs of military members and to maximize successful military outcomes.

Previous research contributing to the development of the predictive model is documented in four reports. One report presents an examination of the concept and measurement of QOL (Kerce, 1992); a second report provides a discussion of human needs and presents a cognitive life span model (Rosenfeld, Culbertson, & Magnusson, 1992), a third report proposes a theoretical framework for a QOL predictive model (Wicker, in process), and a fourth report reviews the literature in regard to the effects of QOL on military outcomes such as attrition, retention, readiness, and performance (Glaser & Shettel Dutcher, 1994). A Navy-wide survey assessing QOL factors and their relationship to military outcomes for service members was administered in FY93, and a preliminary model developed.

Approach

The approach used to assess the influence of QOL factors on the private sector involved a comprehensive review of the literature. Targeted specifically was research that explored QOL-related effects on turnover and job performance.

Complexity of the Construct

Even though the phrase “quality of life” has been in use since 1964, a consensually agreed upon definition proves to be elusive (McCall, 1975; Szalai, 1980). The definition has included such constructs as subjective well-being which includes happiness, life satisfaction, and positive affect (Diener, 1984). Schuessler and Fisher (1985) point out that QOL has also been defined as a general sense of well-being, with those two constructs being used interchangeably. In a frequently cited work, Andrews and Withey (1976) suggest that QOL “sometimes refers to an ‘outsider’s’ judgments of quality covered in such measures as crowding, decibels of noise pollution, reported crimes, income levels (etc.), but it may also refer to the privately known and privately evaluated aspects of life” (p. 4). Rice (1984) offers a conceptual definition of QOL which is “the degree to which the experience of an individual’s life satisfies that individual’s wants and needs (both physical and psychological)” (p. 157). He distinguishes between objective QOL which encompasses “objectively verifiable conditions, activities, and activity consequences of an individual’s life” and perceived QOL which “is a set of affective beliefs directed toward one’s life” (p. 157).

Conjoint with the complexity of defining QOL is the difficulty of defining the causal relationships regarding QOL. As will be reviewed in the following section, there has been speculation as to the causal nature of QOL (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980), with the literature having tended to emphasize the effects of work on QOL, even though the opposite relationship may be tenable. In an intriguing paper addressing subjective well-being, Headey, Veenhoven, and Wearing (1991) argue that most of the research has concentrated on the effects of domains (e.g., social support) on subjective well-being, or what is termed a “bottom-up” effect. However, they contend that a top-down effect (i.e., effects of life satisfaction on the domains) may also be viable.

As part of an Australian QOL panel survey (using the same group of respondents over a series of four survey administrations), a model was tested evaluating the causal direction between six domain satisfactions (marriage, work, leisure, standard of living, friendship and health) and subjective well-being. Results from the analysis revealed the following: (1) Marriage domain was characterized by two-way causation (being happily married increased one’s life satisfaction, but happy/satisfied people were also more likely to maintain happier marriages); (2) work, leisure, and standard of living domains illustrated top down causation (i.e., subjective well-being/life satisfaction had an effect on work, leisure, and standard of living); and (3) the relationship between life satisfaction and the domains of friendship and health appeared to be spurious. Thus, Headey et al. (1991) point out this study gives some credence to the top-down effect of life satisfaction on domain satisfaction as opposed to the generally held bottom-up effect.

Work and Nonwork

Major Points

1. More support has been garnered for the spillover effect of the work-nonwork relationship (attitudes/behaviors carry over from one domain to another) than the compensatory effect (disappointments in one area of life are made up by another sphere in life).

2. Relationships have been found between extra-work structures (e.g., family size, condition of one's residence) and workplace structures (e.g., pay, nature of the job), even though causality is suggestive at best.

3. QOL related factors associated with job satisfaction and job involvement have included:

- demographic characteristics,
- community variables,
- health, and
- nonwork activities (leisure).

4. Related to general well being were:

- standard of living,
- savings and investments, and
- housing.

5. Stress has a potentially mediating or associative role in the work-nonwork relationship.

The relationship of work and nonwork has generated some interest (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986) although ascertaining causal directionality is inconclusive (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). Near et al. (1980) point out that two hypotheses have predominantly characterized the work-nonwork relationship: (1) *compensatory hypothesis*—human disappointments in one area of life (e.g., work) are made up (compensated) by another sphere in life (e.g., nonwork) and (2) *spillover hypothesis*—attitudes or behaviors from one domain generalize to another (e.g., work attitude carries over to home). Little empirical data, however, have verified those two hypotheses.

Acknowledging the vast domain that the work-nonwork construct encompasses, Near et al. (1980) were specifically interested in reviewing the literature that deals with (1) how workplace structures (e.g., pay, physical conditions, nature of the job, etc.) affect attitudes toward life and behaviors in extra-work (i.e., nonwork) roles and (2) the degree to which structures associated with life outside the workplace (e.g., family size, condition of one's residence and neighborhood, etc.) affect work attitudes and behaviors. In reviewing the effects of work structure on extra-work reactions, Near et al. (1980) note a clear relationship between workplace structures and individual attitudes and behaviors outside the workplace, although the causal nature of the relationship is not clear.

More pertinent to the QOL area is the effect of extra-work structure and reactions to work. Demographic characteristics (e.g., age, education), community variables (e.g., type of community in which workers live and work), health, and nonwork activities (e.g., leisure) have shown a moderate correlation with job satisfaction and job involvement. Family factors (e.g., ethnic background, family attitudes, family size) and demographic variables (e.g., background of worker, such as stability) have shown a relationship with turnover and absenteeism. Once again the authors caution against imputing direction of causality to these relationships. They conclude that workplace structures are related to attitudes and behaviors outside of work and extra-work structures are also related to attitudes and behaviors on the job.

Rice, Frone, and McFarlin (1992) investigated the work-nonwork conflict and QOL and found a significant indirect path between work-nonwork conflict and global life satisfaction, which was mediated by both job and nonwork satisfaction. Interestingly, the direct path between work-nonwork conflict and global life satisfaction was not significant, thus, indicating the need to look at mediating and/or moderating variables in the work-QOL relationship. In another study, it was proposed that (1) organizational work may influence both perceived and objective QOL and (2) that the effect of work on QOL may be mediated by changes in the quality of nonwork life as well as by changes in the quality of work life (QWL) (Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985).

In a prior study, Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978) also explored the following: (1) the relationship between job satisfaction and both work-related and extra-work variables, (2) the relationship between job and life satisfaction, and (3) the relationship between life satisfaction and both work-related and extra-work variables. Job satisfaction, health, life satisfaction, and satisfaction-over-time were the outcome variables of interest. Given the large sample size, each of the outcome variables was significantly correlated with the others; however, the variance accounted for was small, suggesting that the relationships among the variables were relatively weak. With respect to work-related variables (e.g., occupational prestige, job tenure, occupation), there was a significant association with job satisfaction and health, but not with life satisfaction. Based on this finding, the authors propose that life satisfaction should be viewed in a more general perspective of which job satisfaction is only one of several components. As for extra-work variables (i.e., demographics such as age, race, sex, education, household income, and area of socialization), household income had a positive relationship with life satisfaction, satisfaction-over-time and health, but not with job satisfaction. Area of socialization (type of area in which respondent grew up) was only related to health; individuals with rural backgrounds evaluated their health less favorably than their urban cohorts. The type of area in which respondent currently resides (stratum) was related to all four outcome variables. Satisfaction and health were more favorably rated by suburban respondents than their urban or rural counterparts. In terms of extra-work variables (housing) respondents who owned their home rated more favorably the four outcomes than those who rented. The respondent's rating of neighborhood was also significantly (and positively) related to the four outcome measures.

One area of relevance to the work-nonwork relationship is the effects of dual-career families. Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Rabinowitz, Bedeian, and Mossholder (1989) found small but significantly negative relationships between women's employment status and their husbands' well-being, job satisfaction, and overall QOL. Husbands of employed women reported lower levels of job satisfaction, marital adjustment and QOL than husbands of housewives.

Given the increase in dual-career families, Sekaran (1983) examined work and nonwork factors that influenced the QOL of both husbands and wives. Work factors under consideration included career salience (the extent to which careers are an integral part of an individual's life), job involvement, self-esteem from the job, discretionary time spent on job-related activities, and income. Nonwork variables included multiple role stresses, enabling processes, integration of family and work roles, self-esteem, and hired help. Sekaran (1983) found that, as expected, the five nonwork variables were significantly better predictors of life satisfaction than of job satisfaction. However, even though the work variables were more predictive of job satisfaction than of life satisfaction, the difference was not substantial. Sekaran (1983) also investigated the moderating effect of gender on nonwork factors and life satisfaction. It was hypothesized that nonwork

variables would influence the life satisfaction of both husbands and wives, but the relationship for women would be stronger. The anticipated result did not ensue. The moderating effect of gender on work variables and job satisfaction was also explored. It was anticipated that the relationship of work variables and job satisfaction would be positive for both husbands and wives, but even more so for husbands. The result was significant; however, discretionary time (number of hours spent on work-related activities) was the only significant work variable. It was also found that husbands scored higher than their wives on the following dimensions: perceived life satisfaction, self-esteem, job involvement, number of hours working at home on work-related matters, and income. The wives scored higher on multiple role stresses.

Bergermaier, Borg, and Champoux (1984) investigated the structural relationships of work, nonwork, and general well-being among three separate groups of German workers. Besides considering the spillover and compensatory models in their study, a no-relationship model (labeled the segmentation model by other researchers) was explored. This model assumes that behaviors in one sector of life (e.g., home) are not related to behaviors in another sector (e.g., work). In their sample of 320 blue-collar workers from a plastic processing company (in a rural location), standard of living and savings and investments were most central to general well-being. Least central to general well-being were health, city, neighborhood, political and economic situation in Germany, amount of education, church, and crime fighting. For the sample of 94 white-collar employees (bank employees) family life and savings and investments were most central to general well-being. Spare time and housing closely followed. Least central were city, climate, political situation in Germany, church environment protection, and amount of education. For the sample of 141 white-collar employees from a car manufacturer in a large city, housing and spare time were most central for well being. Amount of education, church, environment protection, and the political situation in Germany were the least central. The authors conclude that the results support the spillover and no-relationship models in regard to the work-nonwork connection. Empirical support was not found for the compensatory model. Interestingly, work was found to be less central to general well-being than several nonwork items, even though nonwork aspects found to be central to general well-being (such as savings and investments, housing, and standard of living) may be connected to the economic rewards of working.

Staines (1980) reviewed the literature in regards to the spillover versus compensatory hypotheses. The relationship between work and nonwork based on the empirical studies could be interpreted in three ways: (1) the effects of work on nonwork, (2) the effects of nonwork on work, and (3) the effects of third factors on both work and nonwork. Similar to the findings of Bergermaier et al. (1984) more support was found for the spillover theory than the compensatory model. Interestingly, one major exception to the spillover theory involved physical effort on the job—workers who had a great amount of physical effort at work were less involved in nonwork activities and were less likely to be physically active away from the job.

The work-nonwork interaction has yielded particular promise in the study of stress, although very few studies have considered the relationship of nonwork stressors to job stress and other relevant outcomes in the work domain (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986, 1987). Bhagat, McQuaid, Lindholm, and Segovis (1985), however, validated a construct termed "total life stress" which gave the subject the opportunity to note whether an event was positive or negative and to indicate the extent of the impact. Surveying a sample of white collar, administrative, health care and clerical personnel they found: (1) As predicted, negative stress from both an employee's job

and personal life had a greater effect on organizational outcomes (i.e., work satisfaction, turnover intentions, absenteeism, organizational commitment, job strains, and job alienation) than positive stress from both of those domains; and (2) there was a relationship between negative personal life stress and organizational outcomes, supporting the notion that "people do not separate their personal lives from their job lives; that is, there is a spillover of the effects of nonwork stress on organizational outcomes" (Bhagat et al., 1985, p. 211). Interestingly, positive personal life stress correlated with turnover intentions whereas negative personal life stress did not. Both negative and positive job stress were also found to affect organizational outcomes. Similar to previous findings (e.g., Bergermaier et al., 1984), Rousseau (1978) found evidence for the spillover model when investigating the work and nonwork relationship. The nonwork element was more highly related to stress and absenteeism than the work component. However, work was more related to job satisfaction and the nonwork element was more related to nonwork satisfaction.

Hendrix, Ovalle, and Troxler (1985) tested a path analytic model that suggested that job and life stress resulted from intraorganizational (e.g., organizational climate, management style, job design), extraorganizational (e.g., family relations, residential area, economic factors), and individual (Type A behavior, locus of control, diet, exercise) factors. It was further hypothesized that stress would directly affect job satisfaction and indirectly affect intent to quit the organization through job satisfaction. The path analysis revealed that intraorganizational variables affected one's intention to quit indirectly through their impact on job stress and job satisfaction. As for the extraorganizational variables, home-family relationships indirectly affected job stress through their affect on life stress: the worse the home/family relationship the higher the stress.

One area that is ripe for further research is the contribution of work and nonwork variables to QOL from a cross-cultural perspective. Keller (1987) compared employed white, Hispanic and black Americans, and Mexican nationals in regards to cross cultural differences in QOL. Contrary to expectations, findings from the research revealed no differences among the ethnic groups in QOL. As expected, home life and family nonwork variables were better predictors of QOL than work variables such as job satisfaction and job level. Self-esteem also added significant variance for each of the ethnic groups in explaining QOL.

Summary

The research in the work-nonwork relationship has tended to support the spillover model (attitudes or behaviors from one area of life, such as work, generalize/carry over to another life sphere, such as home), even though the direction of causality is still speculative. It does appear that household income, type of community in which one resides, health, and status of home ownership may be domains that impact perceived QOL and possibly certain occupational outcomes (i.e., turnover). The notion of investigating stress as a mediating variable in the work-nonwork relationship also warrants attention.

The Effects of Family

Major Points

1. Research has generally investigated the effects of work on family instead of the reverse relationship, thus, the effects of QOL-related family factors on work outcomes are suggestive at best.
2. Women with young children have viewed the family impact upon work as generally negative, resulting in absenteeism, tardiness, inattentiveness, and inefficiency.
3. High role expectations from work and family may contribute to perceived role conflict. Role conflict (family/work) may be influenced by the stage at which one is in their career (early vs. late), whether they are married or not married, and/or have younger versus older children.
4. Scheduling/hours at work also plays a role in the work/family conflict (i.e., excessive work time, scheduling conflicts).

It has been pointed out that research has generally focused on the impact of work on the family instead of the reverse relationship (Schultz & Henderson, 1985; Crouter, 1984). In reviewing the research involving the impact of work on the family, studies have generally illustrated the negative effects of the work-family conflict. Factors that may be implicated include excessive work time, schedule conflicts, and fatigue. Most of the research on the influence of family on work, however, has centered around family influences on vocational development and career aspirations. Especially lacking are studies on the effects of family-related variables on job performance. Review of the research revealed that:

Family-related variables including spouse's career, marital difficulties, pregnancy, and the presence of children can and do influence the workplace. These influences can be seen as affecting job performance through tardiness, absence, job turnover, and level of career commitment or salience. (Schultz & Henderson, 1985, p. 43)

Responding to the need to investigate the potential spillover effects of the family on the workplace, Crouter (1984) conducted an exploratory study (via an interview process) in a large manufacturing firm. The results suggested that women with young children (ages 12 and under) tended to perceive the family impact upon work as generally negative. Family responsibilities tended to encroach upon their work habits resulting in absenteeism, tardiness, inattentiveness, inefficiency, and/or inability to accept new work responsibilities. However, this pattern diminished for women with older children; this may be due to the relationship of family-to-work influence and the family life cycle (e.g., changing nature of the maternal role). A spillover effect was not noted for fathers regardless of their position in the life cycle. In a notion that is similarly echoed by Gutek, Nakamura, and Nieva (1981) regarding the interdependence of work and family, Crouter (1984) speculates that:

As long as society sees child care and household work as primarily mother's responsibilities, many mothers are likely to experience spillover from family to work in the form of absenteeism, tardiness, energy deficit, preoccupation with family-related matters, and reluctance to accept work-related responsibilities that conflict with family time and activities. (p. 437)

Cooke and Rousseau (1984) pointed out that two points of view have prevailed regarding the effects of family roles on the well-being of workers. One contention is that family support may help ameliorate the strain experienced by the employee (social support model). The other view suggests that tension between family and work may lead to inadequate role performance, marital discord, and other negative outcomes (role theory). Interrole conflict (between home and work) may possibly increase when the demands of either the work or family role increase. The demands of the family role may be a product of increased obligations to the family as they expand through marriage and the arrival of children. Demands from the workplace may include an increase in responsibilities and overtime. Cooke and Rousseau (1984) point to the conflicting findings in the home-work dilemma; it has been found that children can produce conflict as the parents define their parent versus spouse roles and family versus work roles. However, the role of parenthood has also been found to be a strain reducer given the satisfaction derived from the complementary roles.

In an effort to further clarify this complex relationship, Cooke and Rousseau (1984) surveyed a sample of Michigan teachers regarding the effects of family and work roles on strain. Results from the study were as follows: (1) High role expectations from work and family contribute to perceived role conflict; (2) the greater the expectations from work roles, the greater the perceived work overload; (3) family roles moderated the relationship between work-role expectations and perceived work-role overload, with the effect strongest for married workers with children; and (4) the relationship of family roles to strain is mediated by the stressor interrole conflict. In explaining these complex findings, Cooke and Rousseau (1984) suggest that interrole conflict is increased as the nonwork roles change and become more demanding (e.g., having children). Additionally, the effects of work expectations on perceived overload become stronger as workers marry and have children. Furthermore, there is a positive effect of family roles in that the presence of a spouse and children is related to physical well-being; parents tend to experience less strain than nonparents, and married teachers less strain than their single counterparts. In conclusion, even though the role theory model is generally supported in this study, partial support was found for the social support model.

In a similar vein, Barnett, Marshall, and Singer (1992) examined job-role quality (balance between the positive and negative aspects of a person's job) for women and its affect on psychological distress, and how family roles moderate this relationship. The assumption was based on prior cross-sectional studies which found that the mental health (i.e., level of psychological distress) of employed women who also had family roles was not as affected by the quality of their job experiences when these women were compared with employed women who did not have family roles. The research conducted by Barnett et al. (1992) supplemented this area of study in that it was conducted longitudinally as opposed to the prevailing trend of cross-sectional investigations. Barnett et al. (1992) found that for women who were single and/or childless psychological distress increased as job-role quality declined. However, job-role quality was unrelated to psychological distress for women who occupied family roles.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) investigated the source of conflict between the work role and family role. The foundation for their definition of work-family conflict was based on previous role conflict studies (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Work-family conflict was viewed as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Three sources of conflict were enumerated: (1) *time-based conflict*—when the amount of time needed to

satisfy one role makes it difficult to comply with expectations from the other role; (2) *strain-based conflict*—strain in one role affects one's performance in another role; the work environment has been found to produce strain symptoms such as tension, fatigue, and apathy whereas family conflict has also been associated with higher levels of work-family conflict; and (3) *behavior-based conflict*—specific patterns of in-role behavior may be incompatible with behavioral expectations in another role; work roles may demand assertiveness and objectivity whereas the family role may reinforce nurturance and emotionality.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) provide recommendations for future research in this area based on their review of the work-family conflict. Propositions that may be relevant to QOL include: (1) whether support from significant others is related to work-family conflict, (2) whether work-family conflict is related to the stage of a person's career (work-family conflict may be strongest at the earlier stages of a person's career), and (3) whether simultaneous pressures from both work and family roles are necessary to arouse work-family conflict. This finding is echoed in the work of Evans and Bartolome (1984) who found that the significance placed on work may be strongly influenced by the prevailing life stage. Sampling from a population of executives, work appeared to be more crucial in the individual's early adult stage, whereas family and private life emerged as more significant factors later in life.

Higgins, Duxbury, and Irving (1992) developed and tested a model which investigated the relationships between work conflict (the extent to which a person experiences incompatible pressures within the work domain), family conflict (incompatible pressures from the family domain), work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985 above), QWL, quality of family life (QFL), and life satisfaction. The target population for this study was career-oriented individuals with children at home and a career-oriented spouse. A positive relationship was found between work conflict and family conflict. Although the authors did not test the reverse relationship, they speculated that family conflict would also have a significant effect on work conflict. The most powerful predictor of work-family conflict was work conflict. Possible explanations offered included that family life was interrupted with excessive hours at work, and/or scheduling work and family activities was problematic. The work-family conflict was also shown to have a negative influence on an individual's QWL and QFL, which was highly related to life satisfaction. Higgins et al. (1992) point out that this finding:

... suggests that interference between work and family roles diminishes an employees' QWL and QFL which, in turn, may affect variables such as absenteeism, turnover, marital discord, family breakdowns, and productivity. These results suggest that organizations cannot ignore the family as a possible source of work-related problems. (p. 69)

Jackson, Zedeck, and Summers (1985) were interested in surveying a sample of shiftworkers (plant operators) and their families so as to correlate the effects of shiftwork on family interactions. Two theories that were the impetus for this study were: (1) *structural interference theory*—the quality of nonwork activities and experiences (e.g., family life) derives from the extent that job requirements (e.g., overtime, excessive work hours) restrict employees' opportunities to engage in such activities, and (2) *emotional interference theory*—this theory emphasizes the effects of employee's emotional reactions to a job on QFL. Evidence for the emotional interference theory was supported in this study. Emotional reactions to the job were associated with family interaction patterns including: (1) employee's dissatisfaction with job/family congruence, (2) spouse-reported

QFL, and (3) spouse's dissatisfaction with the shiftworker's job. However, only partial support was found for the structural interference theory; only commuting time and having a spouse with a dissimilar work schedule were significant. Job dissatisfaction was also found to be related to intention to leave. Contrary to their hypothesis, the authors did not find that QFL and spouse's dissatisfaction with the shiftworker's job improved the prediction of intention to leave.

Summary

The work-family conflict has generally been explored via the effects of work on family, even though research suggests that the reverse relationship may also prevail. This suggests that the relationship may be bi-directional. Even though family responsibilities have been associated with deleterious effects on the job (e.g., tardiness, absenteeism), there is also some evidence that family may serve as a moderator. It is also essential to consider the career/life cycle of the employee: QOL, and the accompanying effects at work, will be differentially perceived by those who (1) are in the early versus late stages of their careers, (2) are married versus not married, and (3) have younger versus older children.

The Effects of Programs

Miller (1984) reviewed the claims that employer-sponsored child care programs would improve (1) employee work behaviors (such as productivity, absenteeism, and turnover) and (2) attitudes. It was believed that during the child bearing years absenteeism is especially prevalent; thus, quality employer-sponsored child care would serve in reducing absences. Miller (1984) cautions that the few empirical studies that have evaluated the effects of day care provisions on productivity and turnover have not been well designed and have had contradictory results. One study reported lower absenteeism and turnover due to enrollment in a day care program. No effect was found on job performance. Another study did not find any effects of day care enrollment on absenteeism. A partial explanation for the equivocal results may be found in the reasons behind absenteeism/turnover among men and women.

Although the data confirm that married women were absent from work more than single women, that women with young children had lower job satisfaction than those without young children, and that women more than men changed jobs or left the job market because of family responsibilities, child care problems may not have been the necessary causal antecedent . . . differences in absenteeism and job satisfaction could be explained by lower attachment to work or need for wages among married women whose husbands were employed and by the likelihood that women with children held poorly paying low-prestige jobs. (Miller, 1984, p. 281)

Shepard (1988) argues that the company-sponsored provision of industrial fitness and recreation programs may have a substantial impact on employee well-being as well as other outcome variables. In regards to the possibly beneficial effects of health programs on turnover, Shepard (1988) states that an "equipped fitness and health facility may be perceived as an expression of management concern, a sign of stability of employment, or a valuable fringe benefit" (p. 1509). It is also anticipated that productivity might be enhanced by worksite fitness programs. A review of the research has revealed the salutary effects of fitness programs on other factors such as worker satisfaction, facilitation of employee recruitment, increased quantity and quality of production, reduction in health care costs, reduced incidence of occupational injuries, and decreased absenteeism. This may especially be pertinent to more sedentary type of occupations.

The suggestions made in this review article are intriguing in light of research previously summarized (Staines, 1980) which found that physical exertion at work led to less involvement in nonwork activities.

Turnover

Major Points

1. Factors negatively related to turnover have included:
 - perceived job security,
 - organizational commitment,
 - age,
 - tenure in organization, and
 - overall job satisfaction.
2. Factors positively related to turnover have included:
 - intention to search for alternative positions,
 - intention to change position, and
 - perceived alternatives.
3. Findings in the economic domain relevant to turnover include:
 - Intent to leave is higher when one has lower financial requirements.
 - Turnover decreases as achieved salary approaches expected salary.
 - Even though the relationship of turnover and the unemployment rate has generally been negative, the results are not as consistent when investigating market effects on individuals. The correlation between objective labor market and subjective (perceived) labor market was very low.
4. The gender/turnover relationship has been mixed, even though some research has found that family responsibilities had more of an impact on the decision to leave for females than males.
5. A routine work schedule has been associated with higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intention than a variable work schedule.

Research on causal factors of turnover has generated a myriad of models that, even though differing in casual direction, have contained similar factors (e.g., job attitudes, demographic variables, behavioral intentions). Arnold and Feldman (1982) conducted a multivariate analysis of the determinants of job turnover. They found that age, tenure in the organization, overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived job security, and intention to search for an alternative position were the most predictive variables—each of which was negatively related to turnover, with the exception of intention to search for an alternative position which was positively associated with turnover. It was also noted that turnover was more strongly related to intentions to search for alternatives than intentions to change positions.

Similarly, Lee and Mowday (1987) found no evidence for the hypothesized interactional effect of intention to leave and available job opportunities. Support was also not found for the theorized interaction of affective responses and nonwork influences on intention to leave: rather, a direct relationship was found for affective responses and intention to leave. Their model supported the following relationships: (1) Available information about a job and an organization significantly predicted met expectations and job values; (2) job performance, met expectations, job values, organizational characteristics, and organizational experiences predicted affective responses; (3) job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement predicted intention to leave. In terms of the lack of effect for the nonwork factor, Lee and Mowday (1987) suggest that the stage the employee is at in his/her career may be a crucial factor, and thus, should be incorporated in future evaluations of this turnover model. This recommendation bears some similarity to the research previously reviewed in this report (Crouter, 1984) that suggests the need to take into consideration the family life cycle and its effects on work.

Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) conducted a longitudinal study assessing the effects of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among recently employed psychiatric technician trainees. Organizational commitment was defined as the strength of an individual's involvement and identification with a particular organization. The results indicated that individual attitudes are predictive of turnover behavior; employees who ultimately leave the organization have less favorable attitudes than those who remain. The attitude-turnover relationship was found for only the last two time periods of the measuring process, suggesting that the association between attitudes and turnover is strongest at the point most proximal to the employees' departure. The authors also found that organizational commitment discriminated better between the stayers and leavers than the various components of job satisfaction.

In a comprehensive review of the turnover literature, Porter and Steers (1973) investigated four major categories that influence turnover behavior: (1) organization-wide factors, (2) immediate work environment factors, (3) job-related factors, and (4) personal factors. They found strong evidence for job satisfaction and its impact on the individual's participation decision. However, variables from each of the four categories were also found to be influential. For the organization-wide category, pay and promotional considerations were significantly associated with the termination decision. For the immediate work environment, factors such as supervisory style, size of the working unit, and co-worker satisfaction were related to the decision to withdraw/participate, even though there have been some conflicting findings. As for job content factors, task repetitiveness, lack of sufficient job autonomy or responsibility, and lack of role clarity were found to be related to turnover. Results for personal factors were as follows: (1) Age was negatively related to turnover, (2) increased tenure was negatively related to turnover, and (3) similarity between job requirements and vocational interests was positively related to turnover.

In a subsequent review of the literature, Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino (1979) also found support for the negative relationship of age, tenure, overall job satisfaction, and reaction to job content with turnover. Organizational commitment and attachment were also found to be negatively related to turnover. Even though behavioral intentions made a strong contribution to the prediction of turnover, the authors suggested that further research was needed to delineate the antecedents of the intentions. They also suggest that nonwork variables may moderate the relationship of turnover intentions and behavior. Mobley et al. (1979) point out that the relationship among satisfaction, attraction and turnover intentions may be attenuated when (1) nonwork values

and interests are not central to an individual's life values and interests and (2) when an individual associates significant nonwork consequences with quitting. They also anticipated that the relationships among the aforementioned variables may be attenuated for individuals who are bound by contract (e.g., military). The dissatisfied individual who perceives little attraction in the present job, or who perceives an attractive alternative may engage in other forms of avoidance and withdrawal behavior.

To add to the complexity of the underlying nature of turnover, evidence has been found for a model that supported both job satisfaction and organizational commitment as variables leading directly to intention to resign (Dougherty, Bluedorn, & Keon, 1985). This is in contrast to the satisfaction-to-commitment-to-intention sequence traditionally characterized in the turnover process. Lance (1991) also explored an integrative model of the determinants of overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and precursors to voluntary turnover. Using a sample of national telecommunications employees, support was found for a causal process that progressed as follows:

Work environment perceptions → affective reactions → withdrawal cognitions
and intentions → withdrawal behavior.

Economics and Turnover

Kraut (1975) found that the intention to remain with an organization was a stronger predictor of turnover than other job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction). Given that beliefs have been hypothesized as influencing behavioral intention, Lane, Prestholdt, and Mathews (1991) investigated nurses' beliefs about organizational factors (e.g., influence of nurses, hospital's emphasis on nursing, educational service, staffing) and found that they were influential in the turnover decision. Thus, behavioral intention and the propensity to remain/terminate has generated some interest in the literature.

Doran, Stone, Brief, and George (1991) investigated behavioral intentions (i.e., intent to leave) and the relation to job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction). Furthermore, the notion of economic constraints was investigated. As opposed to employees with higher financial requirements, it was hypothesized that employees with lower financial requirements may perceive more choice in the employment-related decision due to their less constraining economic circumstances. Testing a sample from two locations of a major department store, Doran et al. (1991) found that intentions were significantly (and negatively) associated with job satisfaction: The greater the employees' intentions to leave were at the onset of employment, the lower their subsequent job satisfaction. Support was also found for their hypothesis that the intent-to-leave-job-satisfaction relationship is moderated by the external financial requirements (an index that takes into account marital status, spouse's employment status, number of children aged 22 and under, and housing arrangements). When financial requirements were lower, the intent-to-leave and job satisfaction relationship were higher.

Federico, Federico, and Lundquist (1976) were interested in exploring the impact on turnover of expected salary level at the time of entry into a federal credit union, the extent to which the expectations were met over the course of employment, and the inevitable effects of those factors. They also investigated the utility of using biodemographic data as a predictor of turnover for this

female population. They found that met salary expectations (the congruence between a person's initially expected salary level and their finally achieved salary level) was significantly related to turnover. The closer the achieved salary approached expected salary, the less the inclination to withdraw. It was also found that the larger the initially anticipated pay, the more likely the employees would turn over within a relatively short time period. Given that this place of employment had a policy of no longevity pay increases (increase in salary was solely a function of performance) then female employees who achieved a higher salary level due to better job performance tended to remain with the firm for more extended employment periods.

In reviewing the literature, Weiner (1980) has also pointed out that pay dissatisfaction may affect performance, work stoppage, absenteeism, turnover, and job dissatisfaction even though very few empirical studies have confirmed this claim. As will be discussed in a following section, the association between turnover and performance has been explored, and seems to be plausibly related. Federico et al. (1976) noted the following findings: (1) Age was negatively associated with turnover, (2) number of children a woman had at the time of application was positively related to months on the job and negatively related to turnover, and (3) number of years of formal education was negatively related to number of months on the job and positively related to turnover.

Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya (1985) explored the literature in regards to the withdrawal decision and alternative job opportunities in the open labor market. When reviewing aggregated labor market effects on turnover there was a consistent and negative relationship between unemployment rates and voluntary job terminations; this held true across time within one geographical location as well as across locations or industries within one time period. When investigating market effects on individual termination decisions the results were not as consistent. A review of studies had revealed that the prevailing labor market or perceived job opportunities had only a slight influence on the individuals' decision to terminate.

The discrepancy between the two sets of analyses may be due to the notion that different economies may produce different work forces (e.g., the more casual worker may be attracted to the labor market during times of economic expansion). Thus, marginal workers who tend to move from job to job may be less likely to quit after engaging in the cognitive process delineated in current theoretical models. For example, the marginal worker may quit because that was their intention when they took the job. It may be that neither dissatisfaction with specific jobs or labor market factors influenced their decisions. Hulin et al. (1985) also speculate that labor market effects on turnover may be due to the effect of economic activity on satisfaction. When unemployment is high, workers may be more satisfied due to diminishing alternatives; conversely, with economic growth, satisfaction may be low and thus translate into behavioral intentions to quit and job termination.

Interviewing a sample of youths (14-21 years old), Hui (1988) examined whether the perceived labor market is related to the objective market condition, and, if so, how it affects and combines with job dissatisfaction, withdrawal intention, and inevitably, withdrawal behavior. Partial support was found for the model previously reviewed (Hulin et al., 1985); intention to leave predicted voluntary termination behavior, with job satisfaction also predicting withdrawal intention. Hulin's et al. (1985) model suggested that the effects of job satisfaction on termination behavior are mediated by intention to leave. However, Hui's model indicated that turnover was not only affected by withdrawal intention, but also by the employee's job satisfaction and perceived labor market.

Interestingly, there was no correlation between objective labor market and subjective labor market and between objective labor market and job satisfaction. Hui (1988) reasons that the subjective assessment of the labor market may have a prevailing impact on turnover: As an individual is about to form a subjective idea of what the labor market is like, he or she attends only to what is perceived as relevant information. This potentially results in ignoring pertinent information that could be culled from the objective labor market.

Equity theory has also received some attention in the literature. This theory proposes that employees compare their job inputs and outcomes with those of coworkers or reference groups; the employee will strive to reduce the inequity if a disparity exists. In an attempt to predict an employees intent to remain at an organization (i.e., commercial television stations for this study), job satisfaction, in conjunction with perception of equity and the individual variable of education, were found to predict intent to stay (Berg, 1991). Dittrich and Carrell (1979) were interested in assessing the predictive value of equity and satisfaction on turnover and absenteeism. Using a sample of clerical employees in 20 departments of a large metropolitan area office it was found that *payrules* (perceptions of the fairness of one's pay relative to one's coworkers and the fairness of the rules for granting pay increases and promotions) and *workpace* (perceptions of the fairness of the supervisor in maintaining a fair pace of work activity) were the equity variables that most affected satisfaction. This gave credence to the notion that job satisfaction was most strongly influenced by equity comparisons made inside rather than outside the organization. Dittrich and Carrell (1979) also found that employee perceptions of equity demonstrated a strong relationship to absenteeism, which in turn maintained a significant relationship to turnover.

Turnover and Family

Muchinsky and Tuttle (1979) reviewed four personal factors that may influence/predict turnover: (1) age, (2) tenure, (3) family size, and (4) family responsibility. They found that age and length of employment were consistently and negatively related to turnover. Family responsibility has also been consistently and positively associated with turnover. Family responsibility included such factors as marital status and age of youngest child. There were mixed findings for the relationship of family size and turnover. Whether the employee is the primary or secondary wage earner moderated the aforementioned relationship. The family size/turnover association appears to be positive for the primary wage earners but negative for the secondary wage earners. In a review of the literature, Porter and Steers (1973) also pointed out that family size and responsibilities were positively related to turnover among women, while the impact on men was mixed.

Schneider and Dachler (1978) investigated work, family, and career considerations and their impact on turnover intentions. Using the Work, Family, Career Questionnaire, the results were such that work and career satisfaction were strongly related to turnover intentions. Satisfaction with organizational impact on career and family was also related to turnover intention even though the relationship was weaker. Work factors, thus, were more strongly related to turnover intentions than family factors. However, the authors caution that family considerations should not be ignored in understanding the problem of job stability.

Turnover and Gender

Rosin and Korabik (1990) were interested in examining attrition of female managers, including their reasons for leaving, and what they chose to do after they departed. The impact of nonwork variables were also investigated. Even though research results for the turnover/gender relationship have been mixed, sex has been more predictive in managerial than nonmanagerial populations, implying a particularly high rate of attrition among women MBAs. It was also pointed out that financial burdens associated with marriage may reduce the attrition rate for males whereas the heavier domestic burdens associated with marriage may increase the turnover rate for females. Basing their results on a sample of 391 women with MBA degrees, those who had attrited were equally divided into two groups: those who had departed in order to start their own businesses and those who had left to raise their families.

Interestingly, women who had chosen to spend more time with their families planned to forego full-time employment only during the child's preschool years. Few women managers quit their jobs for family reasons, and when they did, the decision was deemed to be of a temporary nature. Further findings were as follows: (1) Unemployed and part-time employees had the most family responsibilities; the heavy demands associated with the rearing of preschool children was a more important determinant of their career decision to leave than marital and/or spousal reasons (e.g., pressure from husband) and (2) the self-employed and likely to leave sample was less likely to have been married or to be mothers; their reasons for leaving were due to such work and gender-related factors as office politics and lack of opportunity to progress.

In an article addressing women in management, including the requisite balancing of roles, Schwartz (1989) suggests that:

For all the women who want to combine career and family—the women who want to participate actively in the rearing of their children and who also want to pursue their careers seriously—the key to retention is to provide the flexibility and family supports they need in order to function effectively. (p. 72)

Schwartz (1989) suggests that the creation of part-time employment or other alternative work schedules may be incumbent upon the employer if the retention of qualified and competent female managers is to be maintained. One option that has been considered is telecommunication (working at home), even though Shamir and Salomon (1985) caution that working at home may be problematic due to the conflicting demands for time, attention, and energy that may be put upon women who have families.

Turnover and Scheduling

It has been suggested that work schedules may impact the individual's ability to adequately cope with multiple role demands (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991). An area of interest in the QWL (that may also be a QOL consideration) is the effects of routine versus nonroutine (variable) work schedules. Research by Baba and Jamal (1991) suggests that nurses working on a routine shift expressed higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and lower levels of overload, role ambiguity, job stress, and turnover motivation.

Jamal (1981) points out that despite the prevalence of shift work, little evidence had been garnered regarding its effects on the workers' socio-psychological make-up as well as work and nonwork behavior. However, some research has indicated that indicators of emotional well-being such as anxiety, conflict, pressure and self-esteem may be negatively affected by lack of sufficient leisure time. Primarily of interest is contrasting the effects of a work schedule that is of a fixed (i.e., predictable) versus variable nature. Thus, Jamal (1981) predicted that individuals on a fixed work schedule would indicate higher job satisfaction, emotional and psychological well-being, and organizational commitment as opposed to those on a variable work schedule. Lower withdrawal behaviors were also predicted for the former group. Conducting a study at a hospital and a manufacturing organization, it was found that for both units of analysis workers on a fixed shift appeared to be better off than workers on rotating shifts on the following dimensions: (1) mental health, (2) turnover intentions, and (3) number of hours spent in participation in voluntary organizations. It was also found that for the hospital sample, workers on a fixed shift were lower in absenteeism and tardiness and higher on job satisfaction, social involvement, and organizational commitment than the nurses on a rotating shift. Single nurses on rotating shifts were found to have a higher absenteeism rate than married nurses.

In a related study, Smulders (1983) found that for female production employees (middle and lower levels) shiftworking was related to low absence rates, whereas irregular work hours were related to higher absence rates. Other factors that were related to absenteeism (for the overall sample which included males and females) were high age, monotony of work, bad physical working conditions, low number of subordinates, fewer hours per week spent on unpaid voluntary work, and many hours on leisure activities. Interestingly, whereas shiftwork was more related to absenteeism for the female population, nonwork characteristics (e.g., leisure activities, physical sports activities) were more related to absenteeism for the male population.

Turnover and Vacations

Leisure satisfaction (London, Crandall, & Seals, 1977) and vacations may be potential QOL domains, or at least factors that impact the perception of QOL. One QOL variable that Lounsbury and Hoopes (1986) investigated was vacation from work. They explored the relationship of vacation from work to: job involvement, organizational commitment, turnover intention, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Their study involved taking measures of those five components prior to and subsequent to the vacation. Participants in the study consisted of 128 employees in technical, administrative, clerical, and service positions in a medium-sized southeastern city in the United States. Results of the study indicated that following the vacation job involvement decreased, whereas life satisfaction and turnover intention increased. Based on the results, Lounsbury and Hoopes (1986) drew the conclusion that support was found for the open-systems viewpoint. This position asserts that behavior or experiences in either a work or nonwork domain is affected by behavior or experiences in the other domain. Most interestingly, and especially germane to the QOL-turnover relationship, is the suggestion that nonwork components in theoretical models of turnover intention and the employee withdrawal process should be included.

Turnover and Health

Health and physical fitness are other variables directly relevant to the QOL construct. Also of importance is the notion of stress, especially given that role stress has been perceived to be an important QOL determinant (Kemery, Mossholder, & Bedeian, 1987). Thus, Kemery et al. (1987)

examined the causal relationships involving role stressors, physical symptomatology, and turnover intention. Surveying employees from a large southeastern university, causality was tested via causal modeling methods. Results from the analysis revealed significant linkages of: (1) role conflict to job satisfaction, (2) role conflict to physical symptomatology, (3) role ambiguity to job satisfaction, (4) job satisfaction to turnover intentions, and (5) physical symptomatology to turnover intentions. Given the relationship of role stressors, symptomatology, and turnover intention Kemery et al. (1987) suggests that the investigation of the withdrawal process should be more comprehensive, including the mutual and interactive influence of these variables.

Summary

As illustrated in this review on turnover, there is very little in the literature that specifically identifies a QOL-turnover relationship. Rather, certain domains are extracted (e.g., the labor market research) and generalized as postulated QOL factors that affect turnover. A variety of models, some conflicting, have been reviewed in attempts to characterize the causal nature of turnover. It does appear that intention to leave is a viable predictor, with age and tenure also negatively associated with turnover. As for QOL factors, the research is mixed with respect to family size given that it may be moderated by gender and primary/secondary wage earner status. It does appear that pay/salary may be a crucial variable in predicting turnover; even though it can be argued that pay is a quality of work consideration, it would be remiss to arbitrarily divorce pay from the nonwork sphere. As for the prevailing labor market, even though available opportunities in times of economic expansion may be positively associated with turnover, there is some research that suggests otherwise, especially when job satisfaction is considered. It is plausible that perceived labor market is more predictive of turnover than the objective market. Even though the research is scant in the following areas, health and shiftwork may also be QOL/QWL factors that impact turnover.

Performance

Major Points

1. Overall, most of the research has emphasized the effects of work on QOL related factors (e.g., family responsibilities) rather than the converse direction. Especially lacking has been research identifying the effects of QOL factors on job performance. Part of this problem stems from the difficulties of adequately measuring performance.

2. As a QOL related factor, the research suggests that flextime may enhance productivity under certain conditions (i.e., competition for resources).

3. A mixed (if not low) relationship was evinced for performance and family factors; directionality has also been inconclusive.

There has been a noticeable lack of research detailing the QOL-performance relationship. When investigating family-related variables, Schultz and Henderson (1985) point out that the nonwork influence on performance has been deficient because (1) the overriding assumption of many researchers that work affects family, rather than the reverse relationship and (2) there is an on-going difficulty of measuring job performance.

One area that has some pertinence to QOL is flextime. Given the detrimental effect of long (or irregular) work hours on the family (Higgins et al., 1992) one can speculate on the advantages that would be afforded with a more flexible working schedule (Schultz & Henderson, 1985). Ralston, Anthony, and Gustafson (1985) investigated the claim that flextime would have beneficial effects on productivity based on the notion that the demand for resources would be more equitable given the distribution of resources over more hours. Their concern was that outside of anecdotal recitations, little empirical research had corroborated the beneficial effects of flextime on performance. One exception was a study conducted by Orpen (1981) who found effects for flextime on job satisfaction but negligible effects on performance (supervisory assessment) and job productivity. To determine if improved coordination of limited physical resources use resulted in improved performance, Ralston et al. (1985) compared the performance of groups (data entry operators and computer programmers) who had flextime or nonflextime schedules and who did or did not have to compete for work-related resources (e.g., computers). The hypothesis was that the flextime group should perform better than their nonflextime cohorts when resources are limited; no such difference should be present with plentiful resources. There were no significant increases in performance due to flextime for the data entry group when there was limited resource competition; however, for the computer programmers, productivity increased by 24% with the implementation of flextime when there was competition for resources.

Greenhaus, Bedeian, and Mossholder (1987) were interested in how negative experiences within one's work environment might impair the quality of the employees' personal and family lives. An engaging area that the researchers investigated was the effect of job performance on personal and family well being. It was speculated that effective performance by the employee may actually detract from personal and family well-being due to the significant investment of time, concentration, and emotion that may be necessary for high performance. QOL was assessed with a scale which measured employees' attitudes toward their lives. Surveying a sample of 336 accountants, the results suggested that (1) high job performance was more likely to detract from marital happiness and QOL in work environments with high role conflict as opposed to environments with low levels of role conflict and (2) high job performance may also detract from QOL in nonsupportive environments and from marital adjustment in inequitable environments. However, the significance of those interactions was noted as being small in magnitude. Overall, high job performance did not detract from personal or family well-being except for females where a negative relationship was found between job performance and marital adjustment and QOL.

In a study investigating affective responses (i.e., job satisfaction and burnout) to work and QOL from both the employees' and spouse's perspectives, Zedeck, Maslach, Mosier, and Skitka (1988) found that in general dissatisfied/burned out employees perceived themselves as being above average performers. Moreover, low correlations were found between (1) employee satisfaction and performance and (2) burnout and performance. Employee performance was found to have little relationship to the spouse's perception of the family and home spheres.

Kunz and Buono (1993) investigated the impact of work stress, life stress, and work-family conflict on job performance for a sample of sales representatives. This was also one of the few studies that explored differences in perceptions/performance among ethnic groups. Job performance was measured objectively via (1) comparing the employee's actual performance in relation to the sales goal, (2) comparing the employee's actual performance to comparable sales representative's performance, and (3) comparing the sales representative's performance to the

minimum acceptable standard. This is a welcome departure from the majority of studies which have generally employed supervisorial or self-reports assessments of performance. Results of the study revealed a moderating effect of ethnicity on the work stress-performance relationship; when work stress was high, performance for the minority group was lower as compared to the nonminority group. Additionally, there was a marginally (and negatively) significant trend for the family interference with work scale but there was no effect for the work interference with family (WIF) scale. However, when ethnicity was considered, there was a significant relationship between WIF conflict and job performance, thus, indicating the need to consider individual differences, such as ethnicity, in studying the stress-performance relationship. Results also revealed that stress in the life domain had no impact on either the work domain, work-family conflict, or job performance.

Summary

There is a paucity of studies investigating the QOL and performance relationship. When apparent QOL domains are extrapolated from the literature, causality is suggestive at best. Generally the effects of work on QOL domains (i.e., family) are explored rather than the reverse direction.

The Performance-Turnover Relationship

Major Points

1. A variety of relationships have typified the performance-turnover relationship:
 - positive (higher performance/higher turnover),
 - negative (higher performance/lower turnover), and
 - curvilinear (higher turnover for low and high performers).

Even though for the purpose of this review, performance and turnover have been (or are) viewed as separate outcome variables, the performance-turnover relationship has also been investigated. Conflicting views about the direction of this relationship have prevailed (Schwab, 1991; Jackofsky & Slocum, 1987; Mossholder, Bedeian, Norris, Giles, & Feild, 1988). One explanation suggests that performance and turnover are negatively related. The reasoning is that when employee performance is adequately rewarded, job satisfaction should increase, which in turn will lower the probability of turnover. Thus, high performers will be more likely to remain with an organization. This is corroborated in a meta-analysis conducted by McEvoy and Cascio (1987) who found that good performers were less likely to leave an organization than poor performers.

Conversely, a positive performance-turnover association has been proposed. It is suggested that high performers are more employable than low performers and thus are more likely to investigate their options in the labor market. Moreover, Jackofsky (1984) reviewed a set of studies that indicated no relationship between performance and turnover. For example, Martin and Mueller (1981) found that nurses who left their jobs were not significantly better performers than those who stayed. In an effort to further clarify this relationship, Schwab (1991) conducted a study of 259 tenure-track social science faculty members. The results revealed that high performers were more

likely to leave among tenured faculty, but low performers were more likely to leave among untenured members. Schwab (1991) points out that certain prevailing conditions may influence the positive performance-turnover relationship which may entail "externally visible performance coupled with external demand that leads to the opportunity for lateral interorganizational mobility and truly voluntary departures from an organization" (p. 973).

Jackofsky (1984) generated a conceptual model that integrated turnover and job performance. The model took into consideration such factors as ease of movement (e.g., expectation of finding alternatives), desirability of movement (e.g., job satisfaction), and intentions to quit. One prediction based on this model was that there would be a curvilinear relationship between job performance and turnover. The reasoning was that: (1) very low performers would be "pushed out" of the organization, (2) low but adequate performers who are allowed to remain will do so due to low ease of movement, and (3) high performers will depart due to an increase in ease of movement. Jackofsky, Ferris, and Breckenridge (1986) proceeded to test this curvilinear hypothesis. Testing two diverse populations (accountants and truck drivers) a curvilinear relationship of performance and turnover was found. However, there was not perfect symmetry between the high and low end of performance. Even though turnover did increase as a function of job performance, it did so more quickly at the lower end of performance rather than at the higher end of the spectrum.

Spencer and Steers (1981) predicted that there would be a significant inverse relationship between job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction) and turnover for individuals rated low in performance but not for those rated high in performance. The reasoning was that for low performers, the organization would make few efforts to retain the individual; thus, there may be little incentive for the employee to remain unless they truly enjoyed their task activities. Conversely, for high performers, efforts would be made by the organization (via pay raises, promotion opportunities) to encourage retention. The high performers actual level of satisfaction with the job, even though still essential, may play less of a factor in the decision to stay than would the extent to which the individual feels appreciated and properly recognized. Results of the study did confirm the hypothesis: Satisfaction level represented a greater influence for low performers than for high performers on the decision to remain with the organization. Based on these results, the authors suggest that further research efforts need to be directed at delineating turnover for effective versus ineffective employees.

Conclusions

Based on this comprehensive literature review of QOL (and related) factors that impact turnover and performance in the private sector, there is some indication that family and economic domains may influence the aforementioned outcome variables. However, inferring causation is problematic in that the literature has tended to emphasize the effects of work factors on QOL rather than the reverse. Thus, the effects that QOL related factors have on such outcome variables as turnover and performance are still being explored. However, as outlined in a prior report summarizing the effects of QOL (or related) factors on military outcomes (Glaser & Shettel Dutcher, 1994), it was suggested that factors such as pay, housing, and familial considerations may have an impact on turnover and performance.

Recommendations

1. Further clarify the effects of QOL on outcome variables (i.e., turnover performance) given the lack of concrete data identifying the QOL → work relationship. A survey assessing the effects of QOL on military outcomes has been constructed and will be administered accordingly to help accomplish this objective.

2. Mediating variables such as job involvement (Wiener, Muczyk, & Martin, 1992), organizational commitment (Lance, 1991), and self-esteem (Keller, 1987) may play critical roles in assessing the effects of QOL on work outcomes. Thus, Rice et al. (1992) suggest the need to look at mediating and moderating variables when investigating QOL.

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